UNITED
NATIONS

CEDAW

Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women

Distr.
GENERAL

CEDAW/C/HUN/3
14 June 1991

ORIGINAL: ENGLISH

Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)

CONSIDERATION OF REPORTS SUBMITTED BY STATES PARTIES UNDER ARTICLE 18 OF THE CONVENTION

Third periodic reports of States parties

HUNGARY *

* For the initial report submitted by the Government of Hungary, see CEDAW/C/5/Add.3; for its consideration by the Committee, see CEDAW/C/SR. 32 and CEDAW/C/SR. 36, and Official Records of the General Assembly, thirty-ninth session Supplement No. 45 (A/39/45), paras. 18-68, for second periodic report submitted by the Government of Hungary, see CEDAW/C/13/Add.1 and CEDAW/C/13/Add.1/Amend.1; for its consideration by the Committee, see CEDAW/C/SR.124 and CEDAW/C/SR.127, and Official Records of the General Assembly, forty-third session Supplement No.43 (A/43/38), paras 672-719.

95-31457

V.91-25691

INTRODUCTION

1. As a state party to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, Hungary submitted to CEDAW its initial report on the implementation of the Convention, in accordance with the relevant provisions thereof, on 20 September 1982.

2. The second periodic report on the implementation of the Convention was submitted on 29 September 1986 and was considered by CEDAW at its 7th session on 1 and 2 March 1988.

3. The present (third) periodic report of the Hungarian Government, relying on the substance of the initial report and the second periodic report, will cover, in conformity with the General Assembly resolutions (A/42/38 and A/43/38) on the guidelines for the preparation of reports to CEDAW, the main developments in the status of implementation of the Convention.

I.

4. The period since the second periodic report has witnessed fundamental changes in the entire society of Hungary. The communist one-party system and the structure adopted to it have disintegrated and have been replaced by a new, representative democracy based on democratic, free elections.

5. The pluralist parliamentary elections in April 1990 and the municipal elections (establishing self-governments) in September 1990 have produced a change in the social system of Hungary.

6. Formed as a result of the pluralist, free elections following the codification of the agreements reached during the national round-table negotiations, the Parliament set in motion a significant legislative process, which, still under way, has affected and will affect all essential laws, beginning with the most important legislation. (Constitution, Family Law, Criminal Code, Civil Code, Social Insurance Act) The basic concept of amendments, adopted and pending, is aimed at building a democratic state of law, giving effect to human rights and fundamental freedoms, and guaranteeing the equality of citizens.

7. Amended by Act XXXI of 1989 and Act XL of 1990, the Constitution of the Republic of Hungary has created the basic institutions of a democratic society and state of law and has formulated the most important principles governing their functioning. The amended Constitution expresses, by its very structure as remodelled, the primary importance attached to the protection of citizens as individuals and the enjoyment of their rights. The general provisions of the Constitution state, inter alia, that the Republic of Hungary is an independent, democratic state of law in which all power belongs to the people and people's sovereignty is exercised through elected representatives as well as directly. The activity of social organization, state organ or citizen cannot be directed at the acquisition or exercise of power through force or at its exclusive possession. Everyone has the right and the duty to take lawful action against such designs. This latter principle is also an expression of the so called right of resistance, an old historical value of Hungary, which was first embodied in the Golden Bull of 1222. The Constitution lays down the right to form political parties and trade unions as well as the right to self-government and the right to establish associations; accepts the generally recognized rules of international law and brings national legislation into line with obligations assumed under international law; recognizes the inviolable and inalienable fundamental human rights and makes it a prime duty of the state to respect and defend them. The rules governing fundamental rights and duties are determined by separate laws, which, however, must not restrict the substance of fundamental rights in their essential aspects. In the economic field, the Constitution accords equal protection to the public and private property, recognizes and supports the right of enterprise and the freedom of economic competition.

8. The legislative enactments by Parliament specify the basic principles and regulate the activities of the newly created institutions. (The most important laws are listed in Annex I hereto)

9. These enactments afford legal guarantees for women's equality through strengthening the general equality of citizens rather than by special laws and regulations relative to women. In this way they ensure fulfillment by the internal legal system of obligations undertaken in the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women. This general intent of the legal system is reinforced by the constitutional provision making special mention of women's equality:

> "Art. 66 (1) The Republic of Hungary ensures the equality of men and women in respect of all rights, civil and political as well as economic, social and cultural".

10. Given these principles of legal regulation, the Hungarian system of law ensures application of the legislative acts enforcing the aforementioned provisions of the Constitution, not by creation of separate guarantees, but within the framework of an institutional system offering general legal remedy.

11. Today there is no separate government organ which is concerned solely with the advancement of women and with guarantees for and control over the realization of women's equality. The government organs are naturally responsible, in their particular spheres of competence, for implementation of advancement and equality of women as well, but they exercise these functions as part of their duties under the law rather than in execution of special decisions regarding the issues of equality of women. The question of setting up a separate government organ to deal with policy towards women is a recurrent element of political and professional debates over the ongoing modernization of state administration in Hungary. It is also propounded by the Association of Hungarian Women, the largest social organization in terms of membership and scope of activity to deal with matters concerning women. The chief argument advanced by the proponents of a separate government mechanism is that, while the legal guarantees for the implementation of women's equality and non-discrimination against women are created by the system of law, current practice shows that women are at a disadvantage, both politically and economically, in several walks of life.

A. Amid the democratic changes that have taken place in Hungary during the past period, the articulation of women's interests in political life was low-key and ineffective. There are hardly any of the political parties, existing or newly emerging, to have a special programme of its own for women. The parties have low ratios of women members, and there are only a few women among party leaders. During the electoral campaign there was little evidence of the political forces making special efforts to win women voters and to address women's problems in an accentuated way. The ratio of women representatives in the new Parliament, which emerged from the elections in 1990, continued to fall (now 27 MPs, or 7%). This ratio to representatives elected in individual constituencies is as low as 2.8%. The number of women holding leading posts in government offices is equally small. (see Annex II) The causes of women's declining political activism are complex, involving social, economic and cultural elements and associated with the order of values. The most important of all seems to be the fact that the process of democratization, the systemic change based on a pluralist order of values, is taking place under difficult economic circumstances (economic restructuring, inflation, unemployment, growing burdens of child-rearing, etc.) To offset the negative effects, families and particularly men with better income-earning opportunities feel compelled to do considerable extra work, which in turn adds to women's household tasks.

B. Compared to men, women can be said to be at a disadvantage in the labour market as well. Their high employment ratio (82%) is not so much an achievement but rather a result of economic pressure, which is likely to increase among low-paid and less skilled groups of the populations. On the whole, women are less qualified than men. The ratio of trained workers among female manual workers is 25% against 60% among male workers of the same category. Owing to lower skill levels and shorter periods of service, among other reasons, women's pay is lower by 20 to 30% on average. Average wages are generally lower in fields of employment with women's preponderance, which, in certain low-paid occupations, tends to conserve smaller earnings. Child-rearing and care for

the family, the burdens of which fall mostly on women, make women less mobile and therefore women have more limited access to retraining and further training. Again, women are more adversely affected by unemployment now emerging in Hungary. (they enjoy smaller amounts of unemployment benefit owed to previously lower wages, have more limited access to retraining opportunities owed to lower qualifications, etc.) (For more detail, see Annex III)

C. The worsening economic situation and the extra work done by men have increased women's burdens in attending to the family and performing the traditional female roles, and, given the inadequate level and the high prices of services, those burdens cannot be expected to ease in the short run. In line with social trends, addiction to harmful habits (such as alcoholism, smoking, consumption of psychotropic substances and drugs in the younger age groups) is on the increase among women as well.

12. The new women's organizations replacing the former representative organizations of women, which were dissolved in the process of social changes, are as yet weak and have inadequate financial technical backgrounds. Theirself-organization continues, and it would be extremely important for them to strengthen organizationally and to widen their scope of activity.

13. The social problems affecting the social status of women are closely related to the country's prevailing economic situation and the impact of the transition on society as a whole. The solution of these problems is made more difficult mainly by financial hardships and, to a lesser extent, by aspects of mentality. The legal regulations meet the country's international obligations and provide the desirable legislative framework for their practical fulfillment. (For the latest statistical data analyzing the social situation of women, see Annex IV)

II.

New regulation by the Constitution and other amendments and enactments directly affecting the provisions of the Convention

Amendments to the Constitution in 1989

14. The new wording of the Constitution spells out women's equality in more concrete terms:

> "Art. 66 (1) The Republic of Hungary ensures the equality of men and women in respect of all rights, civil and political as well as economic, social and cultural". (The former text read: "Art. 62. Women in the Hungarian People's Republic enjoy equal rights with men")

Amendments to the Labour Code in 1989

15. In the establishment of employment relations and the determination of rights and duties emanating therefrom, workers shall not be subject to discrimination on grounds of sex, age, nationality, race, origin, religion, membership in workers' representative organizations, and political opinion.

Amendments to the Social Insurance Act in 1989

16. The duration of the child-care benefit was lengthened until the child's completion of two years of age. Until its completion of one year of age, the benefit is due to the mother only and afterwards to either parent. Eligibility was standardized and simplified.

17. The system of widows's pensions was streamlined. Previously only the wife was entitled to a widow's pension for one year from her husband's death. According to the amendment, the husband of a deceased woman is also eligible for it. The amount of the widow's pension was increased and the beneficiary entitled to both his/her own pension and a widow's pension. Previously the two benefits were subject to choice.

18. The family allowance ceased to be a social insurance benefit and came to be financed from the state budget. Its amount was fixed by Act XXV of 1990, with effect from 1 July 1989, as follows:

For	Per child	Total
1 child	Ft 1870	Ft 1870
1 child with a single parent	2170	2170
1 child if formerly the allowance was due in case of two children, with this child included	2170	2170
2 children	2170	4340
2 children with a single parent	2300	4600
3 children and every additional child	2300	
Any children with prolonged illness or mental infirmity	2650	

19. In future, the amount of family allowance will be subject to revision by Parliament every six months, with allowance to be made for the rate of inflation.

20. The child-care allowance was re-regulated by Government Decree No. 19/1990. (VIII 3) as follows:

It amounts to "Ft" 2450 plus
800 for the first child,
900 for the second child,
1000 for the third and every additional child.

21. In the case of children with prolonged illness or mental infirmity

it amounts to "Ft" 2450 plus
1600 for the first child,
1800 for the second child,
2000 for the third and every additional child.

Unemployment Benefit re-regulated by Decree of the Council of Ministers

22. The amount of the unemployment benefit, which is not subject to deduction, is 80% of minimum wages and its ceiling is three times the amount of minimum wages.

23. The temporary unemployment allowance amounts, from the 181st day of unemployment, to 75% of the unemployment benefit and its ceiling is two times the amount of minimum wages. It is payable for not more than 365 days to a person who, under Decree No. 114/1988. (XII. 31) of the Council of Ministers, formerly received an unemployment benefit and, after the expiry of the period of its enjoyment, was unable to establish employment relations.

Family Act

24. The Family Act is being thoroughly revised with a view, not to modifying the relevant legislation of 1952, but to adopting a Family Code placed on a new basis and meeting with social consensus.

25. In January 1990 Parliament passed two amendments pending a new, comprehensive regulation.

26. The first amendment simplified adoption procedures, the main elements of which include the following:

- the declaration of consent by parents exercising parental supervision may be replaced by that of the guardianship authority in the case of adoption or a child under state care;

- parental supervision is suspended for the period during which the child is under state care;

- the parent may make a declaration of consent to the child's adoption without time limit, as against six months after its birth as was the case under the previous legislation, but such declaration may be withdrawn within two months of the child's birth.

27. With effect from January 1990, the second amendment repealed the provision under which a marriage could not be contracted except after three months following notification of intent, as the waiting period of three months tended to increase the number of prospective spouses applying for waiver of that period.

System of Home Care introduced

28. From March 1990, a woman may stay at home on sick-pay for the purpose of attending to a sick relative.

Debate on the regulation of abortion

29. The question of restricting abortion had been raised during the electoral campaign. The Society for Embryo Protection and the Society of Physicians against Abortion applied to the Constitutional Court to impose legal restrictions on the prevailing liberal practice based on social consensus. The conditions for abortion are currently determined by a ministerial decree, while the advocates of restriction urge regulations by the Legislature.

30. Under the relevant decree of the Minister of Health now in force, abortion is virtually not subject to restriction in Hungary. It is performed at health-care institutes until the 12th week of pregnancy for a charge depending on the mother's social situation or free of charge on medical advice. The advocates of restriction would allow abortion in three cases:

- impairment of the embryo's health,
- impairment of the mother's health, and
- pregnancy in consequence of rape.

31. Also, the advocates of restriction invoke the low birthrate (11 or 12% for long years) and the aging of the population.

32. Today some 85,000 abortions are performed in Hungary, with 63 abortions to 100 live-births.

33. Currently the Abortion Act is widely debated. A large part of public opinion (including the two women's organization) is opposed to any restriction and favours maintenance of the present liberal regulation to be coupled with sexual education and the propagation of birth control.

34. The amendment or maintenance of the regulations in force depends on the ruling of the Constitutional Court.

III

A Brief Review of Implementation of the Convention

Article 2

Hungarian legislation was, already during the previous reporting periods, in keeping with the provisions of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women.

Article 3

The amended Constitution of the Republic of Hungary has proclaimed, in a new wording (Art. 66), the equality of women with men in the political, social, economic and cultural fields alike.

Article 5

a) This is not a matter of legislation.

b) The recognition of common responsibility in the upbringing of children is reaffirmed and emphasized by the legislative amendment extending eligibility for a child-care benefit or a child-care allowance to either the mother or the father, subject to their choice.

Article 6

Hungary is a party to the relevant international conventions and its legislation is in line with them.

It will be noted that phenomena like the growth of tourism, the appearance of private enterprise, and the spread of pornographic literature and video cassettes, which have accompanied social development during the past period, are responsible in part for a recent widening of the social basis of prostitution. The resulting revival of prostitution is indicated by the rising number of recorded crimes connected with prostitution.

Article 7

Hungarian legislation is in keeping with this provision. The related problems of social practice have been discussed in Section I.

Article 8

Hungarian legislation is in line with this provision, but its practical enforcement is hampered by problems mentioned earlier and associated with women's qualification indicators and traditional roles. The number of Hungarian women working in international organizations or participating in national delegations thereto cannot be regarded as adequate.

Article 9

1) Hungarian legislation is in line with this provision.

2) Hungarian legislation is in line with this provision.

Article 10

(a) to (e) Hungarian legislation is in line with these provisions.

(f) No special measures have been adopted to this effect as they are not required by the relevant statistical data.

(g) to (h) Hungarian legislation is in line with these provisions.

Article 11

1) Hungarian legislation is in line with these provisions.

2) Hungarian legislation is in line with these provisions. Practical implementation under the established institutional system is noteworthy even by international standards.

3) Hungarian legislation is in line with this provision.

Article 12

1) and 2) Hungarian legislation is in line with these provisions.

Some of the social measures relating to maternity can be seen as meeting the requirement concerning nutrition during pregnancy and after birth, but they cannot by themselves ensure compliance with this requirement.

Article 13

Hungarian legislation is in line with these provisions.

Article 14

Hungarian legislation contains no special provisions for rural women nor are such provisions necessary under Hungarian conditions.

Article 15

Hungarian legislation is in line with these provisions.

Article 16

Hungarian legislation is in line with these provisions.

ANNEX I

List of major enactments by Parliament

- Act XXV of 1989 amending the Criminal Code: it restated the factors constituting political crimes and, in line with the requirements of a state of law, terminated their applicability on other than legal grounds.

- Act XXVIII of 1989 on Travel Abroad and Passports and Act XXIX of 1989 on Immigration and Emigration: they ensure the freedom of movement, an essential requisite for human rights.

- Act XXXI of 1989 amending the Constitution.

- Act XXXII of 1989 on the Constitutional Court, a new institution in the legal system of Hungary.

- Act XXXIII of 1989 on the Functioning and Finances of Political Parties: it regulates the legal status of the political parties authorized by the constitutional amendment.

- Act XXXIV of 1989 on the Election of MPs: it regulates elections within the framework of a multi-party system.

- Act XXXV of 1989 on the Election of the President of the Republic: it regulates the institution of Head of State.

- Act XXXVIII of 1989 on the State Audit Office: it reintroduced this important institution of financial control in Hungary.

- Act IV of 1990 on the Freedom of Conscience and Religion and Churches: it did justice to the formerly persecuted churches and to masses of believers.

- Act XXVI of 1990 nullifying the illegal judgements passed between 1945 and 1963.

ANNEX II

Women in Parliament by mode of election and political party

Political Party	Individual Ticket	Electoral List	Total	Ratio
Hungarian Democratic Forum	3	4	7	4 3
Alliance of Free Democrats	-	8	8	8.6
Hungarian Socialist Party	-	5	5	14.7
Independent Small-holders' Party	1	2	3	8.7
Christian Democratic People's Party	-	1	1	4.8
Alliance of Young Democrats	-	2	2	8.7
Agrarian Alliance	1	-	1	33.3
Together of which:	5	22	27	7.0
on territorial list on national list			10 12	8.3 13.3
Total	176	210	386	
Women's ratio (%)	2.8	10.5	7.0	

Ratio of women in the Government (on 31 July 1990)

	Total	Males	(%)	Females	(%)
Prime Minister	1	1	100	-	0
Ministers	13	13	100	-	0
Secretaries of State	33	31	94	2	6
Deputy Secretaries of State	24	21	93	3	7
	71	66	93	5	7

Source: A Magyar Közèlet Kèzikönyve (Handbook of Public Life in Hungary), MTI Sajtòbank, 1990, pp. 56-69.

ANNEX III

Economic Activity of Women of Working Age

	Percentage (1 January 1988)	Thousands (1 January 1988)
Active earners	74.0	2 134 a)
On child-care leave	8.0	231
Pensioner	3.9	112
Students	7.3	211
Other Dependants	6.8	197
Total	100.0	2 885

a) In addition, there are 85,000 active earners among women who are over, and 2,000 who are below, working age.

Active earners among women by economic sector

	Percentage (1 January 1988)	Ratio of Women by sector
Active earners, females of which in:	100.0	45.8
industry	29.1	43.2
building industry	3.0	19.0
agriculture & forestry	16.4	39.9
transport, post & telecommunication	5.1	28.2
trade	15.3	65.4
non-material sectors	29.4	62.7

Monthly average wages in September of
women skilled workers in some of the main occupations

	Forints (1987)	In percentage of men's average wages, 1987
Industry		
mechanical instrument makers	6 227	85
radio and television mechanics	6 342	97
medicine production	8 293	75
spinners	7 500	121
weavers	6 850	80
shoe production	5 640	87
makers of factory-tailored clothes	5 118	75
Agriculture		
plant growers	5 127	81
poultry breeders	5 580	87
cattle breeders	6 596	89
Transport and Communications		
tram, underground and trolley bus drivers	9 956	94
postwomen	5 399	93
Trade		
shop assistants (except in food shops)	4 891	87
shop assistants in food shops	4 957	88
managers of one-man or two-man shops	5 575	92
Services		
hairdressers	3 471	89
photographers and photo laboratory assistants	6 811	102

Average earnings of intellectual workers+ 1986

	Average earnings of women		Average earnings of administrators = 1	
	In Forints	In % of men's average earnings	Females	Males
Directors	16 890	79	3.3	3.7
Deputy directors	16 600	83	3.2	3.5
Other senior officers	10 940	86	2.5	2.2
Production managers	7 730	78	1.5	1.7
Officials	6 680	83	1.3	1.4
Administrative employees	5 490	66	-	-

\+ Enterprises and cooperatives and agriculture excluded
(Figures of the State Wages and Labour Office)

Primary school graduates and pupils continuing their studies, 1987

	Males	Females
Graduates from day-schools, thousands	67.3	66.9
Out of 100 graduates, number of		
students attending vocational schools	57.2	31.2
technical secondary schools	-	5.5
specialized secondary schools	25.9	27.6
universities	14.1	28.1
Total	97.2	92.4

In 1987 more than half (52%) of students in the day-time courses of higher educational establishments were females, most of whom studied pedagogy, medicine and economics, while the number of students seeking to pursue technical and agricultural careers was small and fell below the figure for the early years of the decade.

Females in day-time courses of higher educational establishments, 1987

	Thousands	Percentage
Total of which:	34.5	51.7
pedagogy	18.6	73.4
medicine	4.1	54.4
health care	1.1	96.3
economics	3.9	64.6
law and administration	1.8	57.3
technics	2.6	15.3
agriculture	1.3	31.2
veterinary science	0.1	19.5

ANNEX IV

CONTENTS

		Page
INTRODUCTION		18
WOMEN IN THE FAMILY		20
WOMEN'S EDUCATION		27
WOMEN AT WORK		33
1.	Women's Employment	33
2.	Women's working conditions	37
3.	Women's wages and salaries	38
4.	Women's opinions of their employment, jobs, working conditions and earnings	40
WOMEN AT THE AGE OF RETIREMENT		42
FREE TIME		44

INTRODUCTION

"Only men and women together make up mankind" (Kant)

1. Out of the total population of 10.6 million in Hungary, 5.5 million people are women and 5.1 million are men. Since 1st January 1980, due to the low birth rate, falling number of live births and to the constantly deteriorating mortality rates of men in the 25-59 age bracket, the population has decreased by 105 thousand. Over two thirds of the fall are accounted for by men, and a further less than one third by women. The number and proportion of children and young adults within the total has also declined, whereas that of the middle-aged generation has gone up.

Age distribution of the population, %

	1st January 1980		1st January 1988	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Children	23.2	20.6	22.4	19.8
Young adults (15-29 years)	23.2	20.9	20.8	18.4
Middle-aged (30-59 years)	39.0	39.1	41.4	40.4
Elderly (60 years and over)	14.6	19.4	15.	21.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

2. It is sign of the rising average age of the population that the number of the elderly is relatively high, in comparison with that of the young. At present there are 88 elderly citizens per 100 children, i.e. 10 more than in 1980. In the years between 1980 and 1982, this proportion was as low as 11-18 in the developing countries, but in European countries it ranged widely: between 50 and 66 in Romania, Poland, Portugal, Czechoslovakia and between 102 and 116 in the United Kingdom, the GDR, the German Federal Republic and Sweden.

3. The number of women has, according to censure, always exceeded that of men. The surplus of women, however, is not characteristic of each age-group. Among new born babies there are more boys than girls: in the 1980s there were 105 new born boys per 100 girls. Women's life expectancy is better, their mortality is lower in every age group, thus at the time of their birth they may expect to live seven years and seven months more than men. Consequently, by the age of 35 the proportion of the two genders becomes balanced, and over that there is a growing gap in favour of the woman population.

Number and proportion of women and men according to age groups (1st January, 1988)

	Men	Women	Women/1000 inhabitants
	1000 persons		
Children (0-14 years)	1.145	1.089	951
Young adults (15-29 years)	1.063	1.009	949
Middle-aged	2.118	2.216	1.046
Elderly (60 years and over)	791	1.175	1.485
Total	5.116	5.488	1.073

4. In territorial terms, concerning metropolitan, urban and rural areas, there are the same trends in the proportion of women and men as in the national statistics, i.e. in the middle-aged and elderly group there are far more women than men. In total, the number of women per 1000 men is considerably higher in Budapest (1141) than in smaller towns (1070) and in villages (1043).

5. The number and proportion of economically active people has fallen in the 1980s. The overwhelming majority of the fall is accounted for by men.

Economic activity of the population (percentages)

	1st January 1982		1st January 1988	
	Total population	Women	Total population	Women
Active wage earners	46.7	40.7	45.7	40.5
Inactive wage earners	21.3	26.9	24.2	28.2
Retired on welfare allowances	19.1	22.6	22.0	24.0
On child-care leave	2.2	4.3	2.2	4.2
Dependants	32.0	32.4	30.1	31.3
Children of 0-5 years	9.0	8.5	7.1	6.7
Students	15.8	14.8	17.1	16.1
Other dependants	7.2	9.1	5.9	8.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

6. With a fall in the number of births, there are fewer children (0-5 year olds) than at the beginning of this decade. At the same time, the population of pensioners and students has increased.

WOMEN IN THE FAMILY

7. The most general form of starting a family is still marriage. In the 1980s the number of new marriages has gradually decreased: in 1980, 80 thousand marriages were contracted, in 1987 only 66 thousand. The rate of marriages is lower in Scandinavia, the North of Europe, Belgium, the Netherlands, France, Italy, while in Central Europe and the countries of Southern Europe is mostly higher.

Number of marriages per 1 000 people of 15 years or over

	Men	Women
Average of 1979 and 1980	72	54
1987	50	38

8. The number of marriages has dropped mainly with single men and women, but there were also fewer widowed and divorced people getting married than in 1980. The number of divorces is high, and with certain ups and downs, it keeps going upwards. In 1987 as many as 30 thousand divorces were pronounced, i.e. two thousand more than is 1980. With 2.8 divorces per one thousand inhabitants, Hungary follows the Soviet Union, the GDR and the United Kingdom in the list of European countries.

9. In the 1980s the number and proportion of divorces in marriages with a past of 10 years or more has increased, whereas fewer of recent marriages have been broken up. In spite of the drop, the least stable marriages are the ones with a history of 2-4 years. In two thirds of dissolved marriages there are two children, in 30 per cent there are two or more.

Divorces according to the number of children (percentage)

Number of children	1980	1987
1	31.4	34.4
2	36.9	35.1
3	24.3	25.4
4 and more	2.4	1.0
Total	100.0	100.0

10. In 69 per cent of divorce cases (in 1980, 65 per cent) it was the woman who started the divorce proceedings.

11. Studies of the history and break-up of marriages have found that in 1987 those marriages contracted 13 years earlier were more likely to end in divorce where there were no children at all (46%) or where there was one child only (36%). It is also a fact that housewives tend to have more stable relationships, which is partly due to their lack of independent wages and their higher than average number of children. As far as second jobs are concerned, it cannot be proved that they make marriages less lasting, but it can be seen that the absence of the father or husband is easier to tolerate than the absence of the mother or wife.

12. In the 1980s the number of marriages coming to an end due to divorce or death has always fluctuated between 95 and 100 thousand, and since 1978 has always exceeded the number of new marriages; in 1980 by 18 thousand and in 1987 by 29 thousand.

13. Within the population of 15 years of age and older, due to what has been outlined above, the number and proportion of married people has fallen, and simultaneously that of widowed and single people has increased accordingly.

Marital status of the population of 15 years and older (percentage)

	1st January 1980		1st January 1988	
	Total population	Women	Total population	Women
Single men and women	17.7	13.8	19.3	14.9
Married	67.4	64.3	62.9	59.9
Widowed	10.2	16.3	11.1	17.7
Divorced	4.7	5.6	6.7	7.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

14. According to the data of the 1984 micro-census, 83.3% of the population live in families. Ninety-five per cent of children under the age of 15 are educated in families. The structure of families was modified in the early 1980s so that the number and proportion of families of married couples slightly dropped, and at the same time, there were more single-parent families, where either the mother or the father lived with the child. In 82 per cent of these cases they were single mothers with children.

15. Seven per cent of the population live alone (in 1984, 759 thousand people) without a family, over two thirds of them are women. In 1980 and also in 1984, there were 162 children per one hundred families with children. In 1980, 70%; in 1984 only 68% of children were under 15 years of age.

16. The average size of families in Hungary has been stabilized on such a very low level for a long time now, that even the simple reproduction of the population is not ensured. In order that the number of the population should remain the same, 230 children should be born in 100 families. Even the number of children planned at the time when young people get married is lower than the required level.

Women getting married in 1966	
at their marriage planned to have	1.89 children
in 1980	2.05 children
Women getting married in 1974	
at their marriage planned to have	2.17 children
in 1987	2.05 children

17. There are considerable differences between women's fertility according to their residence, education and economic activity. In 100 rural families, on average, there are 33 more children than in families living in Budapest. In families where the mother did not finish the first eight years of elementary education, there are nearly twice as many children than in families where the mother has academic degrees. In families where the mothers did not go out to work, there are 53 more children in 100 families than in others where mothers are active wage earners. In the case of economically active mothers women working as unskilled labourers tend to have the most children, whereas women employed as leaders and managers tend to have the fewest. The average number of skilled workers', office workers' and technical workers' children is the same.

18. In a harmonic and balanced family it is vital that children should be born healthy and at the desired time. This purposes is served by family planning. In the 1980s approximately one third of 17 to 49 year old women used the pill as their method of birth control, and about one fifth of 15 to 39 year old married women used intra-uterine devices. As there are many women who do not use any form of birth control, or else use it irregularly, or perhaps the method they have chosen is not effective enough, undesired pregnancies are often terminated by abortion. In the years between 1981 and 1987 the average annual number of abortion was 81 thousand: 54 per 100 live births in 1980, and 67 in 1987. Fifteen per cent of abortions were in the case of women with their first pregnancies.

19. The health-care of mothers and children is ensured by an organized network. During their pregnancy mothers are to undergo at least four medical check-ups, in fact however, they turn up at the counselling surgery an average eight or nine times. Over 99% of babies are born in hospital; in a year babies are seen by nurses and doctors an average 11 times. Medical care was at a higher standard in 1987 than in 1980, since there were already 24% more (altogether 1290) pediatricians in the basic health service. The number of surgery hours in pediatric surgeries has increased by nearly 50%, which implies that its growth has exceeded the number of required appointments, therefore, in 1987 more time could be spent on each patient than in 1980.

20. Over the past 40 years due to the improvements in living standards, health care and the introduction of inoculations and vaccinations, there has been a dramatic drop in infant mortality. This positive tendency is still continued: in 1980 there were 23 deaths per 1000 live births, and the figure dropped to 17 by 1987. Nevertheless, infant mortality in Hungary is high; only in Yugoslavia, Romania and the Soviet Union is it higher in Europe.

21. Women's vocation as mothers and educators of their offspring is helped by our state and society in several ways. Mothers having babies are entitled to 24 weeks of maternity leave, of which they are to take four weeks still before the expected date of delivery. During this period, mothers receive their full salaries, if they have been in employment for a certain period of time. In addition, after the baby's birth every mother receives a flat-rate single allowance, if during her pregnancy she attended the obligatory check-ups. The sum of the allowance has been 6.000 forints since 1st January 1988.

22. After the 24 week maternity leave, mothers are in a position to continue to look after their children at home. Up to the child's first birthday only the mother or the single father is allowed to stay at home on wage-adjusted child-care allowance; up to the child's second birthday either parent is granted this right. The sum of the allowance, depending on the time previously spent in employment, is 65 or 75 per cent of the parent's average earnings. For a further year, following the child's second birthday, the parent staying at home draws a flat-rate child-care allowance up to the child's third birthday. For the first child its basic monthly rate is 800 forints, for the second 900 forints, and for the third 1.000 forints. (in case of members of

agricultural cooperatives the respective amounts are 700, 800 and 900 forints) This basic allowance is complemented by an additional 930 forints a month, irrespective of the number of children in the family. This flat-rate child-care allowance is granted also to full-time students of higher education. Since 1st January 1988, parents looking after sick or disabled children can stay at home up to the child's 10th birthday, drawing double of the basic child-care allowance.

23. The introduction of the child-care allowance system made young women go out to work earlier than before. Following the introduction of the flat-rate allowance and later that of the wage-adjusted allowance, 220-290 thousand women have stayed at home each year since 1974 to look after their young children, namely 4-5% of all those people employed and 8-12% of women employees.

24. In the late 1960s some two thirds of women took advantage of this assistance, in the 1970s 75-80%, and when the wage adjusted allowance was introduced already nearly 90%.

The percentage of wage-earning women taking advantage of wage-adjusted and flat-rate child-care allowance

	1969	1979	1986
Employed physical	72	88	93
Non-physical workers	55	79	85
Employees in agricultural cooperatives	71	69	84
Total	66	83	89

25. The proportion of those mothers has been increasing who choose to stay at home for longer periods, up to the child's third birthday, drawing flat-rate allowances meanwhile: in the early 1970s their proportion was less than one third (44% with physical and 23% with non-physical employees), and by 1986 it had gone up to over half of those entitled. (60% with physical and 43% with non-physical employees)

26. In most European countries, young mothers are entitled to maternity leave of varying lengths (ranging from 14 to 30 weeks). Some of this, usually 4 to 6 weeks, have to be taken before the expected date of delivery. In some countries the period of maternity leave depends on the number of her children (e.g. Bulgaria, Poland and France). When the maternity leave is over, mothers may go on child-care leave, the length of which is between 3 months and 4 years. It is usually dependent on previous employment, with the exception of Czechoslovakia, Finland and Sweden, where every citizen is entitled to this advantage. In some countries (Hungary, Sweden, Finland and Italy) it is the parents' entitlement, which means that the father is also entitled to it. The actual amount of the benefit is calculated in different ways, but it is usually rather low. In comparison with average wages, it is usually not more than one third of those, however, there are places where it is high as 90% of average wages. In some of the countries (Soviet Union, Poland, Hungary, Sweden and Bulgaria) parents are allowed to take part-time jobs during their child-care leave.

27. Over the years, the proportion of children has gradually increased who were looked after by their mothers in their first years.

Percentage of who looks after 0-2 year old children

	1970	1980	1987
Mothers on maternity leave	8.5	10.2	12.2
Mothers on child-care leave	37.9	58.6	61.0
Creches	9.5	15.9	13.8
No socially organized care is granted	44.1	15.3	13.0

28. There is a turning point at the child's age of three years, when after the expiry of the child-care leave, over half of the children go to creche or kindergarten. In the case of 4 to 6 year olds the main institution looking after children is the kindergarten: three quarters of four year olds and four fifths of five year olds attend it.

29. From the age of seven, the percentage of children looked after by their mothers is around 17%. Up to the age of 11, the role of day schools is important, afterwards decreases gradually. Nearly three quarters of seven year olds attend them, whereas only 27% of fourteen year olds are in day schools. At the same time, there are more and more children without any supervision during the day. Their percentage is 22% at the age of 11, and by the age of fourteen it rises to 39%.

30. Summarizing the figures: at the end of 1986, 30% of fourteen year old and younger children were looked after by their mothers only, 6% by their fathers and 5% by their grandparents. The function of children's institutions (creches, kindergartens, day schools) is very important, as they cater for 45% of all children during the day when their parents are at work. Thirteen per cent of children receive no supervision, they are the so-called 'children with keys around their necks'. There are, however, very considerable differences hidden behind these average figures, depending on whether the child is in a complete or single-mother family.

Catering for children under the age of 14 during the daytime in percentage

	Complete families with children	Single mothers with children
Only the mother	30.5	19.0
Mothers and/or fathers	6.8	-
Parents together	37.3	19.0
Institution for children	44.1	53.3
Grandparents	4.9	9.0
Older brother/sister	1.1	1.8
No supervision available	12.5	16.9
Other forms	0.3	-
Total	100.0	100.0

31. It is of great assistance to parents that when their children fall ill, they may draw sick-pay. The period of sick-leave is 84 days a year from the child's first to third birthday, 42 days from 3 to 6 years of the child's age, 14 days from 6 to 10 years, but the latter two allowances are doubled for single parents. In 1981 an average of 21 thousand parents were on sick-leave a day, looking after their sick children; the number of these days amounted to 5.5 million a year, i.e. 8 per cent of all sick leave.

32. The most important contribution of society towards raising children is the family supplement. In 1987, 2.3 million children in 1.357 families were granted supplement to the value of 23 billion forints, namely 71% more than in 1980. The number of children entitled to family supplement was 11% higher than in 1980, largely due to the fact that their group had been extended.

The system of family supplements

	Monthly sum from 1st Jan 1989 (forints)	a) Families granted family supplement in 1987 (thousand)
For one child up to the age of six	1320	173
Single parents and families b)	1620	405
For two children single parent families	3500	61
For three children	5250	579
For four children	7000	19
For five children	8750	5
For six or more children	1750/child	3

a) Family supplement is 100 forint more until the child's third birthday.
b) Those families that used to draw family supplement after two children, but this entitlement is no longer valid.

33. Family supplements cover only the smaller part of the costs involved in connection with raising children. Their proportion is somewhat worse than in 1980, although the actual sums have been considerably increased.

The percentage of the family supplement in covering costs

	1980	1987
One parent with one child	21	18
One parent with two children	28	24
Couples with two children	24	20
Couples with three and more children	35	29

34. With women going out to work, the traditional division of labour within the family has became slightly more democratic, but there have been no radical changes. Most of the chores of the household and raising children are still done by women, whether they are active wage earners or not.

35. Looking back to a decade earlier, it can be said that both with men, and with women, the time spent on the household and maintenance has decreased (by 11 or 12%). The time spent on cooking and caring has been cut drastically by 18 and 24 per cent respectively. The time spent on shopping and taking advantage of services has, however, become somewhat more. There is a definitive increase in time spent on buying consumer durables and arranging official matters. Men tend to spend approximately the same amount of time on looking after their children as 10 years earlier, but women have nearly 50% more time, which is mainly due to the introduction of the wage-adjusted child-care allowance.

36. Examining the division of labour within complete families, it appears that in 80-85% of families traditional chores like cooking, cleaning, washing and ironing are done by women only, washing up, preparing sandwiches and laying the breakfast table are also the wives' duties in nearly three quarters of families: the daily shopping, cleaning the flat, cleaning windows and preserving food are also the exclusive tasks of women in 58-63% of cases.

37. On the other hand, fixing and repairing things around the house is done by husbands in two thirds of families. It is remarkable that in slightly more than a quarter of families arranging official matters is the husband's task; in 8% the weekend shopping and in 5% cleaning windows is also the husband's exclusive job. It is more characteristic that certain household chores are shared by couples. Such are shopping and cleaning first of all. It is a relatively new feature that one tenth of men take their share of washing up, a chore very much disliked by most women, and also of preparing preserved food for winter.

38. Single mothers do the various chores alone in most cases, or perhaps share them with older children. Children in single-parent families tend to help in the household more than their peers in complete families.

WOMEN'S EDUCATION

39. The educational level of the population, thus of women has continued to rise in the 1980s. Women's school qualifications in the younger age groups, especially under the age of 30, is somewhat higher than men's, while in the older generations, especially over 60, men's education is much higher than women's.

The population's education (percentage)

Has elementary education (8 forms) or more	1980		1984	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
15-29 years	94.8	95.0	96.0	96.4
30-59	73.8	64.6	84.1	77.6
60 years and over	26.2	19.6	34.8	24.4
15 years and over	71.1	61.6	77.2	67.9

Has secondary education or higher degrees				
	1980		1984	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
18-29 years	29.7	42.1	32.4	46.1
30-59	26.4	22.3	29.9	30.1
60 years and over	12.1	4.9	15.6	6.5
18 years and over	24.4	22.4	27.3	26.6
Has higher education				
25-29 years	9.1	10.6	10.0	13.4
30-59 years	3.8	5.3	11.5	7.1
60 years and over	5.1	1.0	6.4	1.2
25 years and over	8.6	4.6	10.1	5.9

40. Due to the general rising educational level and the gradual retirement of older generations, there has been a favourable upward tendency in the education of active wage earners, thus of women as well. The proportion of those whose qualification is more than simply from the eight forms of primary school.

Percentages of active wage earners according to highest level of education

	1980		1984	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Less than eight forms of elementary school	17.8	19.3	10.8	10.2
Eight forms of elementary education	32.2	39.6	31.4	39.5
Finished:				
Secondary skilled workers' school or vocational school	23.1	8.8	27.7	11.7
Secondary school	18.2	25.0	19.7	29.3
Institute of higher education	8.7	7.3	10.4	9.3

41. Education does not guarantee women equal opportunities with men in the social division of labour. The cause is that women tend to study in secondary grammar schools, that provide general knowledge, or in vocational schools training them for traditionally female jobs, whereas there are more men attending vocational schools. In the 1980s the percentages of students studying in various types of schools have hardly changed at all.

Data of finishing primary school and enrolling to secondary institutions

	1980		1987	
Finishing as day-time students (1.000 persons)	64.0	61.9	67.3	666.9
Afterwards children go to the following institutions (%)				
Skilled workers' schools	57.8	30.1	57.2	31.2
Secondary vocational schools	-	6.0	-	5.5
Secondary technical schools	24.3	26.7	25.9	27.6
Grammar schools	13.8	27.7	14.1	28.1
Total	95.9	90.5	97.2	92.4

42. In 1987, 34.2% of apprentices were girls, slightly more than in 1981. (32,1%) Most girls are trained in traditional women's trades. (e.g. retail trade, the garment industry, services)

Special lines for girls in vocational training

	1981		1987	
	Number (1.000)	Proportion (%)	Number (1.000)	Proportion (%)
Total of this:	50.5	32.1	60.6	34.2
Trade schools	17.3	86.5	18.1	83.9
Garment industry	11.5	96.4	16.1	98.2
Service industry	3.5	65.3	4.7	64.2
Catering industry	4.2	47.9	4.5	44.7
Leather industry	3.1	82.0	4.1	79.6
Textile industry	2.4	96.3	3.1	98.1

43. There are more than average numbers of girls among vocational students trained for the chemical, construction material and printing industries (85%, 70 and 57% respectively). On the other hand there are vocations (like machine industrial, constructional and telecommunicational jobs) where girls do not apply at all, or very sporadically at best. In vehicle technical schools only boys are trained, among mechanics and tool manufacturers there is perhaps one girl in a thousand, and they are very few among mechanical metal cutters (7%), electric instrument makers 32 (about 5%) and mechanical instrument makers (21%). In the 1980s the proportion of girls choosing the food industry and plant cultivation has increased: in 1981, 34% of apprentices in the food industry were girls, and 26% of plant cultivators, in 1987 the respective figures were 41% and 31%.

44. 51.8% of students in technical schools were girls in 1987, which is practically the same as in 1981. In the period examined there was no considerable shift in choosing particular lines. Girls' attendance of medical, kindergarten nurse training schools is as high as 97-100%, in technical schools specialized for trade, economics and postal services it is 80-90%. In 1987 approximately half of the students attending schools specialized for catering and transport were girls, compared with 40% and about 33% in 1981. At the same time however, in secondary schools providing specialization in industrial fields, technical matters and agriculture, the attendance of girls has increased only very slightly and continues to be at a very low level. (20-25%)

45. About two thirds of students in grammar schools, providing general education and in many fields preparing for academic studies with the best chances, are girls. However, only a minority of graduates continue their studies at university or college, and those who do not, find it very hard to get jobs without special qualifications, and it is especially so outside large towns.

46. In the 1980s the demand for academic studies has grown. Between 1980 and 1987 the number of secondary school graduates increased by 23%, and that of applicants to institutes of higher education by 32%. However, facilities in higher education have not been improved and extended at the same rate. In the period examined the number of first year students at institutes of higher education increased by a mere 5 or 6%. This also implies that fewer applicants were admitted: in 1981, 43% were taken, in 1987 only 34% of all those applying. In the individual years, however, because of the well-known ups and downs of demographic changes, the 18-22 year old population varied significantly. That is how it can be explained that in spite of all this, in the early 1980s the proportion of 18-22 year olds at universities was going up (94% out of a thousand in 1981, and 99 in 1985), but in the years 1986 and 1987 the respective figures fell (to 96 in a thousand).

47. Slightly more than half of full-time students were women (51%) in 1987: women students were preparing mostly to become doctors, teachers and economists, while the number of those preparing for engineering and agricultural careers is low and has fallen since the early 1980s.

Full-time women students at institutes of higher education

	1981		1987	
	Number (1.000)	Percentage	Number (1.000)	Percentage
Total	31.8	50.1	34.5	51.7
Teacher training	16.0	73.4	18.6	73.4
Medicine	4.4	56.8	4.1	54.4
Health work	0.9	92.0	1.1	96.3
Economics	3.4	61.5	3.9	64.6
Law and public administration	1.4	50.8	1.8	57.3
Engineering	3.2	17.6	2.6	15.3
Agriculture	1.5	28.3	1.3	31.2
Veterinary medicine	0.1	15.8	0.1	19.5

48. The proportion of women varies with the level of teacher training: in 1987 with kindergarten nurses it was nearly 100%, with teachers for handicapped children 94% and with elementary school teachers 98%. At the same time 77% and 72% of faculties of arts and teacher training colleges were women, and only 45% of faculties of sciences. In raising the educational level of the population, evening and correspondent courses for adults have played a very considerable role in the past decades. By the 1980s, however, the number of students at these special schools had fallen back by 38% to 82 thousand, and the number of school leavers taking final examinations dropped by as much as 44%.

49. The fall has been less radical in higher education: by 1987 the number of correspondent and evening students fell by 13% to 32 thousand on the figure in 1980. Simultaneously, the number of those studying for their first degree has dropped and that of post-graduate students has increased. (by 23%) The falling popularity of correspondent and evening courses is in part due to the fact that employers are less willing to support their employees' efforts, and in another part to people's changing circumstances. (taking on extra jobs, etc)

Women's attendance at extra-mural courses and adult education

	1981	1987	Number of women/1000 in 1987
	Women's percentage among graduates		
Semi-skilled training	12.5	10.7	6.6
Skilled workers' course	36.3	40.3	3.6
Diploma course for office work	56.9	49.3	38.4
State language examination	50.3	58.3	12.1
Course providing qualification	35.0	35.9	60.6
Retraining for physical jobs	12.4	14.2	15.6
Further education of university graduates	56.3	54.1	38.0
Post graduate courses for managers	28.4	36.7	13.4
Further education for other intellectual jobs	42.4	55.1	21.7
Further training courses	31.1	34.7	88.8
Total	32.4	35.1	149.4
Of this for physical jobs	14.1	14.2	25.7
For intellectual jobs	49.5	50.5	123.7

50. Outside the school system, various professional courses provide opportunities for obtaining qualifications and for retraining. There are over 400 thousand people attending some special training programmes each year, one third of them being women. In 1987 most women attended courses preparing for intellectual and office jobs (82%), e.g. courses on education, culture, economics, accountancy, administration, legal matters and health-care.

51. The rising educational level of women is expressed by the fact that today the proportion of women among intellectuals is already 60%. There is a certain increase among research workers as well, although this rise is much less marked. In 1987 over 11 thousand women worked as researchers and developers, i.e. 29.1% of the total, against 27.8% in 1982, 27,2% in 1977 and 23,5% in 1972. Women researchers' average age (39,5 years) is two and a half years less than men's, which is explained by the fact that among the younger generations there are more women. Due to structural changes and economic limitations, primarily the proportion of young scientists has been decreasing.

Age distribution of research workers, %

			Women in 1000 researchers and developers	
	1982	1987	1982	1987
Under 30	16.0	12.8	33	31
30-39 years	37.6	34.4	32	34
40-49 years	25.2	30.4	27	31
50 years and over	21.2	22.6	17	18
Total	100.0	100.0	28	29

52. Women researchers are "traditionally" found in largest numbers in social sciences and medicine. (with 44 and 38% respectively) Twenty-four to twenty-six per cent of researchers in natural sciences, engineering and agricultural sciences are women.

53. In 1987, 69% of researchers and developers (in 1982, 65%); new minimum one foreign language on a level sufficient at least for studying the literature of their fields.

54. Among women, the number of those familiar with languages is slightly higher (71.3%) than among men (68.5%). An achievement and acknowledgement of scientifical efforts is obtaining degrees. In the years between 1981 and 1987, 503 women were awarded candidate's degrees and 46 were awarded doctorates, namely 19% and 8% of all such degrees in the period concerned.

WOMEN AT WORK

1. Women's employment

55. Among women of working age, there has been practically full employment in the 1980s. On 1st January 1988, three quarters of the 15-54 age-group were wage-earners. Adding to this figure the number of women on child-care leave, who are only temporarily out of work, women's employment level is as high as 82%, which is almost the same as the respective percentage for men. The number and proportion of other dependent women, not counting those that are still studying, decreased from 10% in 1981 to 7% in 1988. The majority of women in this category are unable or unwilling to take jobs for family commitments, for their state of health, for the lack of the right qualifications or the shortage of jobs in the area.

Economic activity of women of working age

	Percentages		Thousand on
	1st January 1981	1st January 1988	1st January 1988
Active wage-earners	72.2	74.0	2134 a)
On child-care leave	8.7	8.0	231
Pensioners	2.8	3.9	112
Students	6.0	7.3	211
Other dependants	10.3	6.8	197
Total women of working age	100.0	100.0	2885

a) In addition, there are 85 thousand active wage earning women who are older than the official working age and 2 thousand who are younger than that.

56. Forty-six % of active wage earners are women. (2.2 million) Their number was slightly lower than at the beginning of the year 1981, but their proportion is somewhat higher. As a consequence of the shifts in the labour market in the 1980s, the number of women in industry, construction industry, agriculture and forestry has decreased, and in sectors, as for example in non-material sectors, in trade, transport, postal services and telecommunications it has increased. Nearly two thirds of the sector are women in trade and in services, the two areas where most women are employed. Within services in the health, social and cultural services, over three quarters of workers are women. In other sectors of the national economy, the proportion of women is below average.

Active wage earning women

	1st January 1981	1st January 1988	
	Percentages		Percentages in sectors
Active wage earning women	100.0	100.0	45.8
Industry	32.6	29.1	43.2
Construction industry	3.1	3.0	19.0
Agriculture and forestry	18.8	16.4	39.9
Transport, postal services, telecommunications	4.5	5.1	28.2
Trade	14.0	15.3	65.4
Non-material sectors	25.0	29.4	62.7

57. Fifty-eight per cent of active wage earning women (employees and members of agricultural cooperatives) work in physical, and 42% in non-physical jobs. Among men, the proportion of physical workers is much higher. (78% and that of non-physical workers is lower, 22%) Half of the 1.2 million women in physical jobs are semi-skilled, a quarter are unskilled and a further quarter are skilled workers. Unskilled workers are mostly cleaners, porters and messengers. In the 1980s the number and proportion of skilled women has increased, that of unskilled women has decreased. Nevertheless, there are far fewer skilled women than men.

Percentages of active wage earners in physical jobs

	1st January 1981		1st January 1988	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Skilled workers	57	22	59	25
Semi-skilled workers	30	50	30	51
Unskilled workers	13	28	11	24
Total of physical workers	100	100	100	100

58. The qualificational differences between work done by men and women are represented also by the 1984 survey conducted at state-run industrial companies. It was found that only 40% of semi-skilled men, however, over 50% of semi-skilled women do work that requires no more than maximum six months of training. In "complex" jobs demanding at least five years of practice, and in "especially" complicated jobs requiring minimum ten years of practice there are 45% of skilled men, whereas only 16% of skilled women.

59. Nearly 40% of physical employees and members of cooperatives are women, and they are present in smaller or bigger numbers in practically every line. In certain occupations, the role of women is decisive. Such typical areas are found primarily in light industry, food industry, trade and services. For example, the overwhelming majority, at least two thirds of

employees are women in weaving, spinning, sewing, textile fashion, shoe-making, leather industry, fancy-leather making, the dairy industry and processing, in the preserving industry, and among shop-assistants, hair-dressers, beauticians, nurses, computer operators and data processors.

60. The proportion of women is considerable, approximately 50-60% among opticians, surfacers, galvanizers, metal polishers, medicine manufacturers, type-setters, furriers, fur-fashioners, restaurant employees and fast food sellers. In the latter field, the proportion of women has decreased slightly since 1960. There has been a parallel process in radio and television servicing, where the representation of women has decreased to a quarter of all mechanics from one third in 1960. In engineering there are big differences between women's and men's employment. In addition to the hard physical burden of these jobs, most probably tradition also has a part to play in women's reluctance to choose them. For example, the proportion of women is smaller among vehicle mechanics (3%), motorcycle-mechanics (9%) and tool manufacturers (12%) than among drillers (42%) and mechanical grinders (33%).

61. There are certain trades where there have been more and more women over the past 25 years or so, such are for example, those of press-operators, chief foremen in printing industry, watchmakers and dental technicians. In these lines the proportion of women was as high as 28-44% in the mid-1980s.

62. As far as agriculture is concerned, in plant cultivation and horticulture there are twice as many women than among stock-breeders and minders of livestock. In the former lines their proportion is around 60%, whereas in the latter - in spite of a gradual growth - it still does not reach the 40% mark.

63. On 1st January 1988, 62% of non-physical workers (employees and members of cooperatives) were women. The figure was exactly 80 thousand higher (10.2%) than at the beginning of 1981. With the exception of those working in technical jobs, the number has increased in every category, but most remarkably in administrative and accounting areas.

Women in non-physical jobs according to lines

	Percentages		Thousand	Proportion of women in each category (%)
	1st January 1981	1st January 1988	1st January 1988	
Engineering	9.3	8.4	74	24
Administration, office-work	26.2	27.3	240	58
Health, culture	26.6	28.4	250	75
Book-keeping, accounting	37.9	35.9	316	89
Total non-physical workers	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

64. Women have been oriented mainly towards those non-physical occupations over the past years where the concentration of their gender has been traditionally high. In office work and administrative jobs (e.g. shorthand typists, accountants, pay-roll clerks, financial clerks, cashiers and ticket office clerks) women's proportion is over 90%, as well as in careers whose name already suggests their character (nurses, kindergarten nurses, school mistresses) and in teaching and in certain areas of the health service (e.g. hospital nurses and assistants). There is a dominance of women in jobs of librarians, elementary and secondary school teachers,

chemists, process organizers of computer sciences, chief accountants, financial controllers, etc. In the mid-1980s over half of office workers in central public administration and two thirds in local councils were women. Today the number of women employed in legal field (as judges, legal advisers for companies, etc.) is also large. In technical occupations - with the exception of testers, laboratory assistants and draftsmen - the number and proportion of women is low. In 1986, 13% of women in non-physical lines were in leading, managerial positions, 58% were classified as qualified administrators and 29% as clerks. There was very little change from 1980, although there were slightly more leaders and fewer clerks. Positions of non-physical men are very different though, as in the mid-1980s 43% were in leading, managerial positions, 53% administrators and 4% clerks.

65. In the mid-1980s 79% of active wage earning university graduate women held jobs in harmony with their degrees. In their own assessment, however, 93% judged that they could fully or at least partly utilize their qualifications in their everyday work. Among men, the correlation of jobs and qualifications is only 71%, while 89%, said they were satisfied with the extent they could use their knowledge. University graduates from medical, law and public administration schools were most likely to find in accordance with their degrees (over 90% of them), while those with degrees in agricultural sciences and trade were least likely to do so. The correlation of qualifications and jobs is average in case of women with degrees in teaching, sciences and public education, which it is below average in case of women with engineering degrees. (71%) Engineers feel that their degrees are harder to utilize than teachers.

2. Women's working conditions

66. In 1986, 8% of active wage earning women did not have to travel to and from work, because they were home-workers (e.g. working for a cooperative or assisting another wage earner in the family) or because their place of work and residence were in the same building (e.g. teachers living in the school-building, chemists in the drug store or caretakers in the place they were in charge of). Ninety-two per cent of active wage earning women, however, were compelled to spend more or less time commuting. Over 80% of women going to work every day were employed in the same settlement as their place of residence, 18% however had to commute to another town or village. In the 1980s the number of commuters has decreased, but that of men has dropped faster than women's. Therefore, the proportion of commuting women went up to about one third in the mid-1980s.

67. In 1986, 52% of working women spent a maximum of 30 minutes a day travelling to work, 30% spent over half an hour but less than a whole hour. These statistics imply that with most women, time spent commuting was not so much as to considerably influence the family's way of life or care On the other hand, the position of those who are to spend over 90 minutes a day travelling is especially unfavourable. Nine per cent of all women, altogether 173 thousand belonged to this category. From this respect those living and working in the same settlement are usually luckier, because 60% spend a maximum of 30 minutes a day, travelling to and from work. Twenty-nine per cent of those commuting to a different settlement spend more than 90 minutes a day, and a further 18 % 60 to 90 minutes a day on commuting. Commuting is more frequent among physical wage earning women than among non-physical employees: 20 out of the former category, whereas only 12 of the latter were commuters. More people from the youngest generation are ready to take the burden of commuting than older workers: about a quarter of wage earning women under the age of 30, whereas only 14% of the age group worked in a place different from their own settlement.

68. The over whelming majority, about nine tenths of active wage earning women worked full time, about 3% part time and the remaining 6% were self-employed, free lance, home-workers, doing odd jobs or helping other members of their families. Seventy-one per cent of active wage earning women, about 1.5 million people worked one shift, mostly the day-shift; 400 thousand (19%) worked different shifts, usually either in the morning or in the afternoon. Only 1% worked divided shifts, and the remaining 9% worked longer holders or without having fixed working hours. Over 100 thousand women were working night shifts, most of them alternating the day and the night shift weekly, but a smaller minority worked the night shift only. Shift work is more frequent than average in industry. According to the five-yearly representative labour survey in state-run industry, between 1979 and 1984 the proportion of physical workers among women decreased, among men however it increased.

Data of physical workers' shift work in state-run industry

	1979	1984
Percentage of workers doing one shift	57	54
Percentage of workers doing shift work	43	46

69. Work-related accidents and diseases, excessive physical and nervous tensions and burdens are more frequent with men than with women. According to the 1984 survey, at the place of work of 44% of physical women there was no health-hazard, but the same figure for men was only 24%. At the same time, 12% of physical women and 32% of physical men were employed in especially unhealthy jobs, where their physical (and mental) burdens were also considerably above the average level. The proportion of men exposed to high risks of accidents is especially high (33%), which is accounted for by their more frequent employment in mining, in the energy industry and metallurgy. Eleven per cent of women in physical jobs are exposed to increased risks of accidents.

3. Women's earnings

70. In the 1980s the increase in workers' and office-workers' net average nominal wages has been slower than the rise of the consumer price index, with the exception of the years 1981, 1985 and 1986. Consequently, the purchasing power of wages, thus wages in real terms have been decreasing, by 2.5 or 3% up to 1987, and by an additional 6-7% in 1988. Between 1982 and 1987 women's average monthly wages in various sectors of the national economy were rising faster than men's, so the gap between physical women and men has been narrowed down somewhat. (from 31% to 28%. Women's average wages were highest in industry, in 1982 in transport, and lowest in agriculture and forestry, in 1982 in water management)

Monthly average wages of women in physical jobs

	Forints	In terms of men's average wage	
	1987	1982	1987
Industry	5593	70 %	73 %
Construction industry	5268	65 %	69 %
Agriculture, forestry	4689	69 %	70 %
Transport	5234	74 %	71 %
Internal trade	4915	77 %	80 %
Water management	4914	65 %	66 %

71. The shift in wage relations, namely the decreasing gap, is characteristic in the case of skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled women. At the same time, there is a slightly bigger difference now between unskilled and skilled women's wages: in September 1982 the latter earned 29% more, whereas five years later 31% more than the former group.

Monthly average wages of women in physical jobs in industry

	Forints 1987	In terms of men's average wages		The same among under-thirties in 1987 (%)
		1982	1987	
Skilled-worker	6140	73.1	75.8	79.4
Semi-skilled	5490	75.7	78.8	78.4
Unskilled	4689	77.5	84.3	87.7
Total	5593	70.4	73.4	78.1

72. Average wages of skilled women were lower in all the main occupations, with a few exceptions, than men's both in 1982 and 1987. The difference varies with the lines concerned. In the period examined, the gap is occasionally widening, occasionally narrowing.

Skilled working women's monthly average wages (in September) in a few selected occupations

	Forints 1987	In terms of men's average wages	
		1982	1987
Industry			
Mechanical instrument makers	6227	81	85
Radio and TV mechanics	6342	97	97
Medicine manufacturers	8293	77	75
Spinners	7500	96	121
Weavers	6850	89	80
Stitchers (in shoe-making)	5640	86	87
Textile fashioners	5118	82	75
In Agriculture			
Plant cultivators	5127	87	81
Poultry breeders	5580	91	87
Cattle breeders	6596	85	89
In Transport and telecommunications			
Tram, buss, trolley-buss drivers	9956	91	94
Postal delivers	5399	99	93
In trade			
Shop assistants	4891	84	87
In food stores	4967	84	88
In Service			
Hairdressers	3471	91	89
Photographers, photo-laboratory assistants	6811	106	102

73. Wages and earning of physical workers depend basically on their qualifications, on the complexity of the job and on working conditions. Further factors affecting pay are the time spent in employment, the main sector of the occupation. (industrial, trade, transport, etc. jobs) The factors listed account for part of the difference between men's and women's wages. Women's earnings are also unfavourably affected by their commitments in looking after children, because of which they are obliged to be away from work more frequently and have to interrupt it for shorter or longer periods. According to surveys in the early 1980s women's earning handicap in comparison with men of the same age, qualification and category of employment amounted to 7-9%.

74. Among the factors affecting non-physical working women's salaries, time spent in employment, education and the place in the managerial hierarchy are worth mentioning. The latter plays a decisive role in differences of earnings.

Average salaries of non-physical employees a) in 1986

	Women's average salaries		Office worker's average	
	Forints	In terms of men's averages	Women	Men
Directors	16890	79	3.3	3.7
Deputy directors	16600	83	3.2	3.5
Other leaders	10940	86	2.5	2.2
Production managers	7730	78	1.5	1.7
Company executives	6680	83	1.3	1.4
Office workers	5170	90	1.0	1.0
Non-physical workers	6490	66	-	-

a) Companies and cooperatives excluding agriculture. (Source: National Wage and Labour Office)

75. The gap between men's and women's wages was, according to data from the early 1980s, 6-18%, in the case of equal nonphysical qualifications, age and position. In addition to financial rewards, 3186 Hungarian citizens were awarded special honours for their outstanding achievements in economy, society, culture and politics, 23% of whom, altogether 745, were women. Most of those decorated were awarded the Order of Labour. The proportion of women among those with golden, silver and bronze degrees was 17, 22 and 29% respectively.

4. Women's opinions of their jobs, places of work and wages

76. In 1986 nearly three quarters of women employees (73%) said they were satisfied with their jobs and places of employment. Women tend to be rather more satisfied with the place of work than with the activity they are to perform there. This is suggested by the fact that 87% of those questioned considered their places of employment adequate, but only 75% were contented with their jobs from professional and other points of consideration. Twenty-seven per cent of the 220 thousand women professionally dissatisfied with their jobs claimed that they did work different from their qualifications. This claim was frequent among those with secondary qualifications, semi-skilled women and young people under 30. The next group (22%) judged that their work was on a lower level than what they could perform. Mostly university graduates, and those between 40 and 49 voiced this concern. Fifteen per cent of professionally

dissatisfied women regarded their jobs too mechanical, too monotonous. Primarily junior clerks referred to this point. One fifth (457 thousand) of women in employment were dissatisfied with their jobs for non-professional reasons. Of the points mentioned, the inadequate financial remuneration of the work done featured with considerable frequency (38%). Secondly and thirdly there were the excessive physical, and mostly with non-physical workers, mental and nervous strains of the job, for which a quarter and a fifth of those concerned said that their work was exhausting. Mostly under forties, junior clerks and office workers said they were inadequately paid. Excessive physical burdens posed a problem mainly to women over 50 and to unskilled workers. The proportion of those mentioning heavy mental and nervous strains increased with the level of education, and was considerable mainly among managers and women working as directors. Younger generations are usually less satisfied with their places of employment than older workers, and physical workers also tend to be somewhat less satisfied with their places of work than are non-physical employees. To the question how they judged their own average monthly salaried in comparison with the pay of male colleagues, 37% of women questioned were unable to give acceptable answers. This might be explained by the fact that a considerable part of women are active in fields where men are not normally employed. Forty-one per cent of women giving opinions felt that their earnings were basically the same as men's in similar jobs. The proportion of this view was much more frequent among directors and leaders (59%) and among office workers and executives (49%). On the other hand, only 35% of physical workers, among them 42% of skilled workers, said that men's and women's earnings were balanced. A very small proportion of women expressing any opinion said their wages were better (3%), while 56% said they were worse than male colleagues' pay, 21% of who felt the difference to be remarkable. Especially semi-skilled and unskilled women and junior clerks were of the latter view. The findings of the survey indicate that the majority of active wage earning women agree with women's going out to work, both theoretically (81%) and practically (77%). The rate of agreement is highest among young people, and is gradually falling with age. With the rising level of education, the frequency of agreement is again increasing: slightly more than one third of women with minimal education, whereas 91% of university graduates believe that it is ideal for women to be in employment. Both among physical and non-physical employees, the proportion of those agreeing to women's employment increases as we proceed in the direction of higher qualifications. At the same time, the overwhelming majority of those holding such views (78%) would consider 4-6 hour employment ideal. There was a parallel tendency in the answers when women were questioned whether they would continue or stop work, if they had the choice. Seventy-seven per cent of women asked believed that they would keep their jobs even if they were in a position to stay at home, but the great majority said they could cope with the burdens of their "double vocation" much better, if they were to work under more favourable conditions. A considerable part of those answering questions about employment could not disregard financial considerations, in spite of the formulation of the question. This is revealed by the finding that 32% of those in favour of employment referred to material reasons. A further third of subjects justified their choice with the need for work outside the home, with a love of work and their profession, with the willingness to utilize qualifications and with the fact that the household and looking after children did not satisfy them. In insisting on work, the daily routine of going to work, participating in a community plays a very considerable role, as it is a different way of life than that of housewives'. One quarter of those concerned would decide the question of employment on this basis.

WOMEN AT THE AGE OF RETIREMENT

77. On 1st January 1988 the Hungarian population over the age of retirement was 2.3 million, and a further 400 thousand men and women received early pensions, disability pensions, welfare allowances, etc. Altogether, of the population over the age of retirement and of the younger generations provided for by welfare allowances, 1.6 million (60%) are women. According to a survey in the mid-1980s, nearly three quarters of the elderly generations, 1.9 million people lived in or with families. Six hundred and seventy thousand out of them, however, lived in families whose members were over 60. A considerable part of the elderly, about 20%, that is some 500 thousand people were single, three quarters of whom were living alone in their homes. The majority of single people, 400 thousand were also women. A further 100 thousand lived with relatives or other persons, and 34 thousand were in homes. On 1st January 1988, the number of pensioners was nearly 2.4 million. One hundred and twenty thousand of those over pensionable age did not take advantage of their entitlement, that is to say, they continued their active wage earning jobs. On the other hand 200 thousand people were not entitled to any pension. 1.9 million pensioners draw pension in their own right, 309 thousand as widows. Among pensioners in their own right there are practically the same numbers of men and women; among the 309 thousand, however, there is hardly no man at all. The overwhelming majority of dependent members of families are also women. The average monthly sum of pensions granted in citizens' own rights was 4624 forints in January 1988. Within the total, men's average was 5357 forints, women's 3896 forints. Half of all pensions were below the 4000 forint mark. The larger part of women are in the lower category of pensions. The average allowance granted to widows in January 1988 was 3319 forints. The reasons for the different pensions of men and women is that women's average earnings are lower and the time they spend in employment is usually shorter. This is so because women are entitled to pensions at the age of 55 whereas men only 5 years later, and in the past many women started going out to work only at a later age.

Monthly average basic salaries in citizens own rights according to sums, in percentages, January 1988

	Men	Women	Total
2499 forints and less	0.2	0.5	0.3
2500-2999 forints	2.0	15.6	8.8
3000-3999 forints	27.1	54.4	40.8
4000-4999 forints	30.4	18.1	24.2
5000-5999 forints	16.9	6.3	11.6
6000-6999 forints	9.5	2.7	6.1
7000 forints and more	13.9	2.4	8.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

78. Some pensioners go out to work, obtaining additional incomes, partly for financial reasons and partly because of the need to be active. According to data in the mid-1980s over 18% of pensioners take up jobs and a further 12% work in household plots. Primarily younger, healthier pensioners tend to continue working after retirement, whose pensions are above average. Mostly village people are likely to obtain some extra income from agriculture,

from household plots. Concluding a contract of looking after elderly people in exchange for their homes does not improve pensioners' situation very considerably, but 72% of these contracts were made with women. Two thirds of pensioners may rely on some sort of help from their relatives. The actual sum of pensions does not normally influence this. For 24% of retired people, nearly half a million citizens, the only source of income is their pensions. It is an important factor in pensioners' financial situation whether there is an active wage earner in the family or not. According to the income survey of 1987, over a third of pensioners live in households where there are active wage earners, and their financial situation is usually more favourable than of those where there is no active wage earner in the household. In the inactive group of society, the rate of those living below the subsistence level was over 26%, while the same rate in active households was 18.6%. At the same time, the proportion of citizens with 10.000 forint or higher incomes per person was 1.7% and 5.3 in active households. Eighty-three per cent of the country's population live in households where there are active workers, 17% in families without active wage earners. The living conditions of the elderly are often influenced by their state of health even more than by their financial position. According to the survey in the mid-1980s, 45% of the elderly thought their state of health was worse than average and only 4% felt themselves to be healthier than their peers. With age these figures are deteriorating. Over half of the elderly population has some chronic disease, 12% have two, 3% have three or even more. At least one of the chronic diseases is a cardiovascular or orthopedic problem.

Distribution of citizens according to per capita income, 1987

Per capita personal income	Households with active earners	Households without active earners
Below 2600 forints	6.2	7.7
2600-3400 forints	12.4	18.5
3400-3800 forints	8.7	12.3
3800-4200 forints	9.3	11.0
4200-4600 forints	9.0	9.7
4600-5000 forints	8.3	8.9
5000-5400 forints	7.4	7.1
5400-5800 forints	6.6	4.5
5800-6600 forints	9.9	8.5
6600-7800 forints	9.6	5.8
7800-10000 forints	7.3	4.3
Over 10000 forints	5.3	1.7
Total	100.0	100.0

79. One fifth of the elderly smoke: 36% of men and 8% of women. Nearly two thirds of elderly men drink alcohol regularly, whereas only 17% of women.

80. Older generations live in smaller than average homes, and the level of conveniences is also lower. One fifth of the elderly (whereas 14% of the whole population) live in one-room flats. More than two fifths of the elderly live in homes without any conveniences, against 30% of the total population.

81. Older generations spend their free time with useful activities and with entertainment: 1.1 million are keep gardeners and bee-keepers, more than half a million are active in the do-it-yourself movement, 1.1 million are fond of embroidering, knitting, etc. and the number of voluntary workers is over 200 thousand.

FREE TIME

82. The free disposable time women have after socially fixed activities (e.g. wage earning, household chores, extra work, shopping, studying, etc.) and after meeting personal physical needs (e.g. sleep, cleaning, meals, etc), has increased by about 30 minutes a day since the mid-1970s, the main source of this increase however, has been the reduction of time spent on sleep, rest, recreation, commuting.

83. According to data of the situation in spring, women have average of three and a half hours a day (214 minutes) that they can dispose of freely, which is less than 15% of the 24 hour day. On week days it is little more than three hours, but at the weekend it is more than four and a half hours. Time women are free to dispose of is 26 minutes less in our days than men's. Although there has been some improvement in the past decade. (as in 1977 the gap was still 40 minutes) Comparing men's and women's free time, it appears that they spend the same amount of time on social activities (talking, entertainment, etc.), and in the case of other leisure activities, women spend less time than men (as e.g on watching television, reading, walking, etc).

Average time balance of 16-69 year old

	Men			Women		
	1977 Minutes		1986 %	1977 Minutes		1986 %
Socially fixed time	549	541	37.6	583	567	39.4
Time spent on personal physiological needs	667	658	45.7	673	659	45.8
Free disposable time	224	240	16.7	184	214	14.8
Total	1440	1440	100.0	1440	1440	100.0

84. The basic characteristic of free disposable time is that individuals may use it as they wish for social, community, cultural, entertainment activities, for visiting cultural facilities, doing exercises or sports, etc. but in fact this relative freedom is also socially determined to a great extent.

85. Both men and women spend more time (52 minutes more a day) on social and community activities than a decade age. Over half of this addition is spent talking, and in the case of women, nearly a quarter of it is spent entertaining guests. Time spent on social and community type activities has increased in towns mostly among women, whereas in rural areas both among men and women.

86. Sixty-eight per cent of free time is spent on cultural and entertainment activities like reading, watching television, embroidery, etc. In comparison with the mid-1970s, the population spends 20 minutes more on them: in case of men it is an increase of 13 minutes, in case of women 25 minutes. Women's handicap has been reduced considerably in this respect. They watch more television, read more weekly papers and magazines. Women have two and a half hours a day for cultural activities and entertainment in the home: on week days about two hours and at weekends about three hours. The main form of entertainment is watching television, 1.4 hours on weekdays and 2.3 hours at weekends. Time spent on watching

television has gone up primarily because the circle of viewers has been widened, and new fans have given up several of their previous pastimes for the sake of television, consequently, time spent on certain household chores has also been markedly reduced. Women have about 30 minutes a day for reading. It is a sign of changing reading habits that there is a sharp rise in time spent on reading weeklies and magazines. The number of women reading daily papers regularly has also increased (although the figure is still half of men's), but the time spent on reading them at one sitting has become shorter. Men have less time for reading books than ten years ago, women have slightly more. In the amount of time spent on reading there are still enormous differences between social groups. Leaders, managers, intellectuals and other non-physical employees spend much more time on reading than physical workers do, especially agricultural physical workers.

Average free daily disposable time of the 15-69 year old population (minutes)

	Men		Women	
	1977	1986	1977	1986
Social, community activities	50	52	42	52
Of these: talking	26	28	22	28
- entertaining guests	14	9	14	12
Cultural, entertainment activities	140	153	121	146
Of these: television	89	105	80	99
- reading books	15	12	11	12
- reading daily papers	17	12	6	6
- reading weeklies, magazines	2	12	3	9
- listening to the radio (solely)	6	3	3	1
- embroidering	0	0	14	15
- visiting cultural and entertainment facilities	6	6	4	3
Exercise, sport	18	17	13	9
Of this: walking	10	6	9	5
Other activities	10	12	4	4
Free disposable time altogether	224	240	184	214

87. According tn the type of settlement, it is found that in the capital more people tend to watch television and read books than in other towns and villages. Time spent on embroidery has not changed very much over the past decade: it is about 15 minutes a day. The role of listening to the radio exclusively has been reduced, today it is mostly a background source of information and entertainment.

88. The population spend very little time on visiting cultural and entertainment facilities (cinemas, theaters, concerts and museums), and since the mid-1970s it has been reduced even further, especially among women. With city-dwellers, due to the higher level and number of institutions of the kind, time spent on these activities is naturally more than with country people.

89. As regards sports and exercise, the way of life in Hungary was poor in this respect already in the 1970s. Since that time these pastimes have lost more of their significance, especially the role of walking has been limited, time spent on walking has been approximately halved. Men tend to spend a little more time on sports, but with women there is stagnation on a very low level. In our days, even going on foot is becoming less widespread.

90. Examining relations of marital status and free disposable time, it is found that marital status affects not only the amount of free time, but also its internal structure. Married people have considerably less free time, and it is less varied too than single peoples. Married people watch more television and take less exercise. Since the mid-1970s, the little amount of time married women spent on exercise has continued to drop.

91. Ten years ago they used to spend 20% less time on these activities than men did, but at present their handicap is already 50%. (The drop is especially considerable among the 20-24-year olds) That is to say married women tend to stay at home, much more frequently, which has its impact on leisure pursuits within the family.

92. The use of free time is determined by the number of children as well. Young mothers with two or more children usually have less free time than childless or single people. Free time activities are different on week days and at weekends in the respect that at the end of the week they tend to spend more time on entertaining guests, watching television, going to the cinema on long walk although among active wage earning women, time spent on walking is much shorter at the weekend as well than is was in the second half of the 1970s.

Average daily utilization of active wage earning women's free time according to marital status, in minutes, 1986

	Married	Single	Widowed/divorced
Social community activities	43	66	49
Cultural, entertainment activities	125	153	127
Of this: watching television	90	80	90
Visiting cultural and entertainment facilities	2	13	2
Exercise, sports	6	19	13
Others	3	7	5